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ABSTRACT

This source book provides some authoritative statements, striking phrases, relevant statistics, and collections of figures on educational topics for people preparing speeches or articles. The topics examined include citizen and school responsibility for the future of education; sources and inadequacies of school financial support; cooperative community, student, and teacher planning of curriculum; and teacher accountability. Also included are the results of a Teacher Opinion Poll conducted in 1973 studying teacher reactions to basic school programs, student violence, and class size. A final section briefly describes educational research on the topics of examination hysteria, sex role uncertainty, behavior modification, commitment to environmental improvement, classroom recitation, student attitudes, parents and television watching, the integration of retarded children in regular classes, college enrollment, early schooling in Russia, school survival, sex role typing, and teacher image. (Author/DE)

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Source Book for Speakers and Writers

SO 008 335

Our Future is in Our Schools

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PREFACE

If you are preparing an article or a speech, you're probably looking for some relevant statistics, some authoritative statements, some striking phrases to use in developing your theme. Here is a collection of figures and quotations from respected authorities and controversial personalities, together with a list of the sources where they appear. We hope they will help you show your community members why good schools are everyone's responsibility.

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INTRODUCTION

If you live in the United States, our educational institutions have an effect on your life. Their achievements benefit you; their deficiencies damage you. The taxpayers, government, businesses, parents, teachers, and students in a community benefit when that community has good schools. Unnecessary poverty, misery, disease, and crime are the results of poor education, or lack of education. And because of the increasingly great mobility of the American population, you may suffer the effects of an inadequate school system a thousand miles away.

This Source Book for Speakers and Writers will, we hope, serve as a touchstone for your own involvement in working toward educational excellence...today, and for the future.

Traditionally, American education has operated on the idea that people have a right not only to get an education but also to direct their educational system. However, in fact, it has been largely governed by public bodies: on the national level, by the Office of Education that administers legislation enacted by Congress, which in turn shapes education through the manner in which it appropriates funds; on the state level, by the legislatures that set standards of qualifications for teaching, approve formulas for allocating funds to the local districts, and specify purposes for which funds may be used, and by the departments of education that provide educational leadership to local systems and administer laws and funds; and on the local level, by the school boards that establish policies, by the district administrations that carry out these policies, and in some cases by the municipal governments that authorize funds.

Citizens' Responsibility

> What the school is and what it has done since the beginning of public education in this country have been inextricably related to the wants and needs of people--to their hopes and expectations, to the ideals that give direction to their thoughts and actions, and to the circumstances in which they live. The values which people cherish; the priorities assigned to these values; the theories that hold promise for giving a sense of order, unity, and efficiency to what people do; and the cultural climate that prevails at any given time in large measure shape the educational program. (1)

However, the actual role citizens play varies with the structure of governance and the citizens themselves. Legally, the people elect their state and national legislators who affect the course of education. They are empowered to choose their school boards as their representatives to run the schools. They pay taxes to maintain their schools and go to the polls to approve or reject bond issues for the expansion of educational facilities.

Recently, despite this local involvement, there has been a widespread decrease of public faith in the public schools. This

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mistrust matches the current public attitude toward many other institutions. In many cases, the motives of these institutions are in doubt. In the case of the schools, however, it is the public itself which is responsible for establishing the goals. This duty is prerequisite to the provision of adequate financial support for programs needed to meet the goals, as well as to accurate evaluation of the schools' effectiveness in meeting them. Nevertheless, many people have a vague idea that "the schools aren't doing their job," and for this reason they withhold the personal and societal commitment the schools need.

> For whatever reasons, this is a time when people--here and around the world--are withdrawing the confidence they have reposed in their institutions, and this poses almost insuperable difficulties for the leader. People with confidence in their institutions are willing to delegate decisions to their leaders (congressmen, cardinals, governors, union officials). When confidence wanes, they withdraw the delegation. (2)

That weaknesses in the school system do exist--for a variety of reasons--cannot be denied. Sometimes, however, the weaknesses that exist are not generated exclusively by the schools. A school or school system is a reflection of the community it serves, patterned on the needs, wishes, ideals, and aspirations of that community. If the outcomes of education are less than perfect, the fault may lie in the expressed or implicit attitudes of the community. It may also lie in built-in social problems prevalent in the community. A school in a depressed area, for instance, cannot single-handedly clean up its surrounding neighborhood or attract students more favorably predisposed to learning.

> Many of the failures we ascribe to contemporary education are in fact failures of our society as a whole. A society that is indifferent to its own heritage cannot expect schools to make good the difference. A society that slurs over fundamental principles and takes refuge in the superficial and the ephemeral cannot demand that its schools instruct in abiding moral values. A society proudly preoccupied with its own material accomplishments and well-being cannot fairly expect its schools to teach that the snug warmth of security is less meaningful than the bracing adventure of freedom. In all this, to reform our schools is first to reform ourselves. (3)

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Rights, including the right of citizens to question their schools, invariably imply responsibilities.

> American education is based on the fundamental belief in the ability of the people to make sound decisions about what is best for their children. In our nation, the citizens, acting primarily through their representatives on school boards, determine the broad goals which they expect to achieve through education, indicate these clearly to their elected representatives, and provide the financial support necessary to accomplish the goals they have set. It is important for our citizens to understand and accept these responsibilities. (4)

The American public school system was designed not to become a dictatorship of educational leaders or a pawn of government so long as the people define their educational goals and make them known to those who run the schools. Prime responsibility for the establishment of public policy regarding education rests with the entire public. Working out the purposes of education in a given community is a job that requires at least the active interest of <u>everyone</u> in that community.

> (I)n the present era of widespread disenchantment with the nation's schools it is more important than ever that citizens become deeply involved in defining educational goals for a new age and in joining with teachers and administrators to seek means for their achievement. (5)

Once public policy is determined and written down, the means to carry it out must be made available to the profession. First of all, this requires freedom for the profession to determine and utilize the best methods for achieving the agreed-upon purposes. Second, the profession must provide the most competent professional personnel to do the job.

> Tax-paying citizens (including teachers) are the ones who should decide on the goals and financing of schools, but professionals should decide on how the goals can best be accomplished. (6)

With policy agreed upon and with methods determined, the community must then take upon itself the obligation to provide the support needed to carry out the program. It is unreasonable to make

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demands on the schools and then not make the money available to carry out these demands. Although it is never easy or pleasant to raise taxes, for example, a public that understands its schools and their purposes is much more willing to pay the bill than one kept in the dark.

Schools' Responsibility

This leads to another joint responsibility of the public and the education profession--the two-way-communication needed to keep the schools responsive to the local society and to keep the public informed about its educational program. Yet, some citizens feel that they do not have any real contact with what is going on in the schools, and in many cases, this is a failure of communication: School personnel do not tell parents what the schools are doing with their children and why--they do not explain grading, placement, changes in curriculum and methods. Parents want to know why school is different than it was in their schooldays, or, on the other hand, what schools are doing to prepare their children to live in a different world. They want school boards to have open meetings so they can find out about the problems and proposed solutions, as well as the successes, of their schools. Voters in districts where the school board is elected may not understand the issues involved--for example, they may elect a candidate on the platform of "no new taxes" and then wonder why their children are not offered the curriculum or facilities they need. Parents and others who are aware of the importance of good schools may fail to realize the necessity of mobilizing support for a bond issue or similar legislation; groups of private or corporate taxpayers, on the other hand, may be active and successful in working against such a proposal because they do not recognize the effect the schools have on them. Parents may feel disenfranchised--that neither their votes nor their preferences make any difference in the way the schools are run. They want to feel welcome in the schools, rather than unknown and unwanted by a busy staff. In many school systems throughout the country, citizens feel that the schools try to exclude them, that the schools are run by a closed society which will not voluntarily answer their questions or listen to their ideas.

> The sustained press from the outside upon the schools has led to, in many instances, defensive behaviors on the part of teachers, administrators, and school board members. There has been a gradual tightening of the boundaries of school organization, and the creation (probably unknown to school officials) of an isolation of the

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> school system itself from the constituency it was designed to serve. The sensitivity of school officials in many places has reached the point where innocent requests for information are interpreted as real or imagined attacks upon schools. Many school personnel are extraordinarily cautious and communicate a hostility to the public which they are professionally committed to serve. (7)

The growing emphasis on the intellect as the basis of adjustment to and progress in society has stimulated new interest in the quality of American schools. Citizens want their schools to provide students with education that will allow them to function with comfort in society. Students want education that they can find relevant to their present lives and future plans--education not only for occupational competence but also for intellectual stimulation, social responsibility, and emotional balance. The total effect can be disconcerting to professional educators--who want an educational system that allows them to make the best use of their abilities and training and accords them respect commensurate with the importance of the task society has entrusted to them--unless they realize that public concern can be a great source of support as well as a force for improving the quality of education.

The Future

Because the schools and other institutions of our society now face common problems created by poverty and a history of unequal treatment of different groups of citizens, all these institutions--the schools, social services, health services, housing services, welfare services, employment and training services, and law enforcement services--can increase their effectiveness by working together toward goals chosen for their relevance to contemporary needs. Because the schools need to establish cooperative relationships with communities for the reasons presented above, the barriers between the school and the community must be broken down.

Some of the most important overall goals for education are dealt with in the following section on adequate financing, responsive curriculum, and teacher accountability. While each community can undoubtedly determine numerous other goals that are relevant to its specific situation, these three areas seem to encompass many of education's most pressing needs. When the school and the community are involved together in defining and meeting such educational goals, Americans will receive better education in the full sense the term has acquired today.

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Adequate Financial Support

The educators, government officials, and taxpayers who are interested in ensuring that the budget of the educational institution is as adequate, equitably derived, and effectively administered as possible are now examining the traditional structure and operation of school financial support, at the federal, the state, and, particularly, the local level.

State and local governments are making an effort to support the schools: more than two-fifths of their expenditures go to various forms of education. They furnish almost all the public schools' money.

Even then, the schools do not now have enough money to provide the education that students need. Between 1961-62 and 1971-72, the estimated increase in per pupil expenditures was 122.0 percent. (8) Local districts need funds to meet increased enrollments, to increase salaries, to alleviate existing deficiencies, and to expand such programs as health services, summer school, and adult education. Nationwide, this gap can probably be closed by increases in local taxes. In many states and localities, however, revenues are expected to be lower than projected expenditures. Similarly, large cities can be expected to suffer from a substantial gap between available revenue and the amount that would be necessary to bring expenditures per pupil even up to their state averages; yet, large city school systems, to be effective, must spend more per pupil than nonurban areas.

Sources of Financial Support

Until recent years, the local districts provided a far greater share of the educational budget; a 1971-72 estimate indicates local governments account for 52 percent of the revenue for public schools. (9)

The major resource applied by local governments to the support of the schools is the property tax. This tax and the local fiscal autonomy that it makes possible are highly controversial, and the constitutionality of the property tax as a means of financing education is being questioned in the courts. One critic describes the property tax as "highly inequitable, regressive, distorting yet productive." (10)

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The ratio of the value at which property is assessed to its actual market value, usually expressed as a percentage, is a crucial factor in the quality of local support. In some districts, different kinds of property are assessed at different ratios to market value and these ratios vary widely among districts within a state; a district with a very low ratio may have a relatively high tax rate to compensate for this, or it may not. Either local choice or state limitations on local property tax rates may prevent local districts from compensating in this way for low ratios. If the same ratio of assessed to actual market value were applied to all types of property and in all districts within a state, the tax would not discriminate against citizens owning certain kinds of property, and a district's tax rates would provide the state and the public with a reliable indication of its effort to support its schools. Such an indication would, in turn, be useful in bringing all support effort up to a minimum standard.

Furthermore, taxpayers, exasperated by the proliferation of demands upon their income, are increasingly resistant to financing the rising costs of schools from the local property tax. And fewer requests for funds through bond issues have been successful with the voters. In effect, tax increases at the state and federal levels have diverted local money from schools, as taxpayers attempt to reimburse themselves for rising expenses.

Because the state constitutions provide that the state legislatures are responsible for education within the state and for support of the state educational system, it is natural that state legislatures have undertaken to provide financial aid to local districts. State financial aid is necessary for other reasons than local inability to pay the whole cost of education; it is necessary to ensure that all the children of the state have the opportunity to acquire an education of at least a certain minimum quality. The state can plan its allocations to make up for the differences in the ability of the local districts to raise revenues for education. State aid to education also distributes the cost of education more evenly among the citizens than local support financed by the property tax, because states are able to use several kinds of taxation--an income tax, sales taxes, and license fees, for example--and thus tax different kinds of consumption.

State aid to education takes several forms. Many states use an equalization formula--which determines how much effort each district is making and allows for the differences in effort between districts--to ensure that each district has a certain amount of money to educate each child in school, under a minimum foundation plan. A state may also provide funds on a flat-grant basis, each district's share determined by a measure such as number of pupils.

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Equalization or flat-grant funds may be designated for the general use of the school system or earmarked for special purposes, such as transportation.

Even in those states with fairly comprehensive school support programs, state and local funds cannot provide adequate support for the educational system that is needed today. Because some states have far fewer resources than others and because state legislatures keep taxes as low as possible in order to attract businesses, state and local support can neither provide the nation's children with equal education opportunity nor ensure that all children will be offered an education that meets even a minimum standard.

Estimates indicate that state governments provided 40.9 percent of the new revenue public elementary and secondary schools received in 1971-72, and local governments provided 52.0 percent. (11) The federal share of all support for public elementary and secondary education reached 7.9 percent of the total in 1965-66 and 8.0 percent in 1967-68. Then it began to fall: by 1971-72, it was down to 7.1 percent. (12) The federal government has far greater resources available than state and local governments combined. Thus:

> The slim federal share constitutes a national disgrace, a symptom of the inverted priorities that characterize the federal budget. (13)

Defense remains the top-priority item in our national budget.

> In 1970-71, all expenditures for education were estimated to be $38 billion; all federal expenditures for education, $4.4 billion; federal expenditures for defense, $82 billion. (14)

"(W)e keep buying new attack carrier task forces at an investment cost of more than $1.8 billion apiece," notes a group of economists, "despite the availability of land bases in the main theaters where the United States is heavily committed." (15) One-point-eight billion? That's more than the budget for Title I.

> (The cost of) an atomic submarine, $158 million, would provide school lunches for a year for 1,416,111 children. (16)

And the items purchased keep getting lost somehow. "Planes disappear under the sea with their pilots rather easily," Philip Slater informs us. Although he is primarily interested in the waste of human lives, he makes the obvious comparison: "(T)he cost of planes lost through landing and takeoff accidents would have financed the poverty program." (17)

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The richest nation in the world could certainly do more. In recent years, the Congress has actually appropriated only about 50 percent of the funds it has authorized for education programs.

The Inequalities of Support

As indicated above, it has long been impossible for many local communities to support a program of good education, and such support as is given locally is seldom equal from one district to the next.

> There are thousands of different local situations, poor towns and rich towns, motivated parents and recalcitrant ones. Some communities spend $200 per year in education of each child; others spend close to $1000. Some are predominantly Negro, others uniformly white. Some are trying to educate the children of mountaineers who have little education themselves, and others are trying to keep up with a Parent Teacher Association in which half the male membership is addressed as "Doctor." (18)

Compare, for example, Baldwin Park and Beverly Hills, California. Baldwin Park citizens tax themselves $5.48 per $100 of assessed valuation for schools; Beverly Hills citizens tax themselves only $2.38. Yet Baldwin Park schools had $577.49 per pupil in 1968-69, while Beverly Hills schools had $1,231.72. This seems strange until you discover that there was $3,706 of assessed property valuation per child in Baldwin Park, while in Beverly Hills there was $50,885. (19)

> Why does the widespread condition of inequality exist? The immediate answer is of course that public schools are locally financed and localities differ in their ability (and willingness) to support schools. This is only half an answer; it does not say why such inequality is allowed to exist. Why has there been no public outcry against the inequalities which exist? . . . .
>
> Educational inequality facilitated by a system of local financing exists because of a combination of at least three factors: the self-interest of the privileged, their tendency to reside apart from the lower class, and the inability of the average person to assess the quality of education available to his child, much less know what is available elsewhere. (20)

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State and federal assistance has been essential to the effort to provide equal educational opportunities for all students, regardless of their place of residence. Unfortunately, however, the distribution formulas for both state and federal funds often do not give the starving schools of the cities and poor rural areas the extra help they need to catch up and to give their students an equal chance for a decent life. Now not only the basis for raising school money but also the basis for distributing it is being questioned.

Federal aid to education is the occasion of considerable controversy. Categorical aid, earmarked for a special purpose, has the effect of inducing school systems to shape their programs in ways which will enable them to receive federal funds. When grants require matching of funds by the state or the local district, an unduly large allocation of funds to a particular program may result in inadequate funding of other items in the school budget and thus damage the quality of education as a whole. Also general federal aid to the states may not be used in a way that reduces inequalities of educational opportunity among the students of the state.

> In Gallup, New Mexico, a school that is only one-third Indian has a split level, carpeted music room; a carpeted library; uncrowded and well-equipped classrooms; a gymnasium and a separate cafeteria. There are plenty of showers, toilets, and drinking fountains. There is a paved courtyard. The school has closed-circuit TV. Although (it) is not a Title I target school, our interviewers found Title I equipment there.
>
> Five miles away . . . (is a school) with a 97% Navajo enrollment. The school is a barrack-like structure surrounded by mounds of sand that drift in through cracks in doors and windows. The "all purpose" assembly hall serves as a cafeteria, gymnasium and assembly hall. There are four temporary classrooms which have no extra sanitary facilities. The classrooms are dark and crowded, the furniture worn and old. (21)

Yet, because of federal impact aid, the Indian children bring twice as much revenue per child to this school district as the non-Indian children do.

> There is, nevertheless, a rethinking underway of the legal and financial responsibilities of

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> states. If education is indeed so central to curing poverty, the quality of service--or at least dollar input--can no longer be a geographical accident, producing inequities not only between one region or state and others, but between city and suburb in the same metropolitan area. As the Commission (on Civil Disorders) data showed, state contributions based on outdated aid formulas often accentuate the disparities. City children end up with less per capita, even though it costs more to deliver the same educational services to them than to suburban children, and they need much more. (22)

Center cities frequently have lower tax bases than their prosperous suburbs. Poor suburbs and rural areas have even less money. Cities, however, have to spend a larger proportion of their income on services other than education--police transportation, welfare, health care--than suburbs and rural areas do. Detroit, for example, although it has a higher total local tax rate than any of its 19 suburbs, has a lower tax rate for education than any of them. Baltimore City spends a third of its local budget for schools; Baltimore County spends more than half. Boston allocates 23 percent of its local budget for schools; nearby Lexington, 81 percent. (23) Furthermore, schools in big cities need larger expenditures per student than those elsewhere because of heavy concentrations of poor children with exceptional needs, and high costs of land and teachers. Yet the capacity of large cities to raise additional funds for education has eroded as wealthier citizens and industry have moved to the suburbs and as noneducation costs have risen. (24)

Norman Drachler, former superintendent of schools in Detroit, has said that equal dollars buy half as much in city schools as elsewhere. (25) This has special significance for the people of color who live in the big cities:

> (C)omparing dollar inputs between schools attended by minority students and those attended by middle class whites is an erroneous way of measuring school resource endowments between races. To the degree that money is spent in both cases on teachers, curriculum, and other inputs that are more effective for white children than for black or Spanish-speaking students, dollar expenditures tend to overstate vastly the relative resources available to the latter group. Rather, nominal resources devoted to the two groups of schools must be weighted by their effectiveness to ascertain their true values. (26)

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The National Education Association's Task Force on Urban Education recommended:

> The special financial needs of cities should be recognized in providing state and federal aid to urban education. Just as sparsely populated areas have difficulty in amassing enough resources to provide an adequate educational program, so population density in cities creates financial problems which inhibit the development of an adequate educational program. It is necessary to compensate for both types of limitations and to distribute funds so as to achieve an optimum relationship between the extent of population and the amount of resources for an area. To achieve this, the higher cost of sparsity and density should be recognized in a double-ended approach to educational costs which will give appropriate weight to the special financial problems produced by the population density of urban areas. (27)

Even within urban systems, the distribution of funds favors children in higher-income neighborhoods. In Baltimore, for example, an NEA study revealed that between 1965 and 1967, $36,776,000 was spent on high school and junior college construction outside the inner city; no high school or junior college construction was carried on within the inner city. A 1966 school map showed 14 new elementary schools in predominantly white neighborhoods; the estimated cost was $22,599,000. According to the same map, elementary schools costing $6,654,000 were to be constructed in the inner-city ghettos. This figure would be inadequate to merely replace the 27 ghetto schools that had been recommended for abandonment in 1921. (28)

The plaintiffs in the California case of Serrano v. Priest sought money for schools in poor districts by alleging that unequal allocation of resources for education within a state is unconstitutional. The California Supreme Court found that wealth is a "suspect" way of classifying people and, most important, that education is a "fundamental interest" (like voting or travel). Only "compelling state interest" can interfere with a fundamental interest under the Constitution, and the court found that the state had no such interest in maintaining its present method of school finance. This method therefore denies people in poor school districts the equal protection of the laws which the Fourteenth Amendment secures to all citizens. "Fiscal free will," the court pointed out, "is a cruel illusion for the poor school districts." Referring to Supreme Court decisions on reapportionment cases, the court

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maintained that "if a voter's address may not determine the weight to which his ballot is entitled, surely it should not determine the quality of his child's education." No one can predict with certainty the ultimate results of this decision, or of the decisions in many similar cases pending in other states, but they at least open up the possibility of providing better financial support to our schools that need it most.

Inequalities in the allocation of public funds for education are reinforced by the differences in the amounts parents are able to contribute to the schools. Parents in middle class neighborhoods often are able to improve the educational facilities in their schools by making donations through the PTA or some other group interested in improving the schools. Ghetto and rural parents frequently have neither the organization nor the funds to make this kind of contribution. And the pattern of allocation of resources is the same as the pattern of allocation of all the other components of the educational system. The schools attended by poor children are badly supplied, not only with funds, but with teachers, books, equipment, supplies, programs, and curriculums. The worst schools in the country are attended by those who need education the most.

In this examination of inequalities of distribution of public funds for education, and the effects of such inequalities, it is well to remember that

> We are going to have to abandon the notion that equality of opportunity is created by spending the same number of dollars on each child. It is not. That is the way we have fostered inequality . . . . The public schools must be organized to give each child what he needs, not just the same services it gives to others. (29)

Distribution of Resources

While adequate financial support for education means raising additional funds in many communities, it also implies careful use of existing resources. The building of new facilities, the purchase of new equipment, the implementation of new programs are actions that must be thoroughly evaluated to see if the return on the dollar investment is truly improved education.

> The teacher and the classroom are, after all, means to an end, and not the end in itself. The end of education is learning; if teaching

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> does not achieve that consequence it is futile. Each new program for reform must finally stand or fall on its proven quality of attainment. Too often a plan for improving the effectiveness of teaching is judged on the basis of its intrinsic appeal, its inner logic; too rarely is it judged in terms of the actual learning of children, the intended product of the educational enterprise. (30)

This principle must guide changes drawn from the field of educational technology, for instance. Teaching machines, programed learning devices, instructional television, and project equipment all have their potential value, but not as objects that prove a school's intent to progress. Instructional television has been a success in some cases, but it has also been known to work against the very inquiry process that educators are trying to promote. When a school contemplates a change and asks the crucial "Why?" the answer too often accepted is, "Because the money's there." One financial newspaper notes that business firms are preparing for a big push in educational equipment because the amount of money available is likely to increase as time goes on, with possible drastic results:

> Until more basic research has been performed, it is feared that countless millions of dollars, poured into the purchase of electronic teaching machines simply because the money is available from the federal government, will be wasted . . . . Commissioner Howe of the Office of Education agrees there is a tendency for the schools to buy equipment they cannot use. He says: "The so-called new media--television, teaching machines and the like--have frequently been prematurely introduced before either adequate content or reliable evaluation has been available. (31)
>
> Change is not automatically for the better. In education's history new fads and cults have often given the appearance of progress while failing to transform education for the good of the individual or for the good of society. It is imperative to review all programs for change with a critical eye for consequences, particularly in a time of revolution, when the pace of change discourages pause for reflection. (32)

Also, the combined pressures of more students, more things to teach them, and still not enough money have prompted planning for

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new school calendars. An outstanding characteristic of the present nine-month year is waste:

> Today, most of our nation's public elementary and secondary schools operate a school year of approximately 180 days. Many of these schools sit locked during the summer months, their facilities unused. Some teachers who stand in the classrooms during the school year spend their summer vacationing or attending school; others must seek temporary employment. Some pupils who study in the classrooms during the school year spend their summer attending camp or vacationing with their families; others face the hot summer with "nothing to do." (33)

The extended school year has many forms and many purposes, and it could be the key to total reorientation of the school program. It may allow pupils to do remedial work, take courses they would not otherwise have time for, or progress through school more quickly. It may also save the district money, which is most likely if it is the major purpose of the plan; otherwise, savings will probably be put into educational improvements.

The High Cost of Inadequate Schools

Although the cost of educating our children may appear to be high, one way to put these financial needs of the schools into perspective is to examine the high cost of an inadequate educational system.

The community that has a high percentage of educated citizens profits greatly. Just as the educated family member recognizes his responsibility to his family, so does he realize that his community can be stronger through his efforts. Local service and governmental units draw wide volunteer support from the educated population.

The community that spends its money on education also finds that it needs to spend less money on other services:

> A more educated population is (presumably) less prone to anti-social actions and consequently there would be a direct saving in social outlays on courts, prisons, police and so on; and also a considerable rise in personal satisfactions both of those who benefit from education, and those who lived in a less anti-social environment. (34)

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The cost of keeping a young person in a juvenile home for a year was estimated to be $6,000 in 1970. (35) And the inmates of juvenile homes often have not been successful in school. In the same year, the average expenditure per pupil in the public school was $868. (36)

> Between 75 and 85 percent of the youngsters who appear in juvenile courts and who find themselves in institutions and shelters are unable to read books and other material appropriate to their age and grade in school . . . .
>
> Generally speaking, school data on delinquents indicate that they are educationally bankrupt. Constant failure breeds frustration and frustration can lead to aggression against self, against other persons, or against property. (37)

The costs of crime, of law enforcement, and of correction are high. If better education is made available, they can be reduced.

Training one person in the Job Corps cost $6,000 as early as 1967. (38) The federal government in 1970 obligated $1,360 million for 972,000 places in training programs like the Job Corps and Neighborhood Youth Corps, an average of about $1,400 per place per year. (39) The average welfare payment per recipient was $50 a month in 1970 ($1,200 per year for a mother and her child). (40)

> Education also benefits taxpayers in other communities. The migration of poorly educated persons having behavioral patterns and educational attainments differing from those prevailing in the new areas may necessitate additional effort and expense to permit the in-migrant children to adjust to the new school conditions . . . . People who are or may be in the same fiscal unit with an individual have a financial stake in his education. (41)

Good education reduces the need for extensive and expensive programs that incarcerate some of the people who have not been enabled to survive in legitimate ways and that attempt to complete the education of others. It also provides positive benefits to the society and the individual. The more education people have, the less likely they are to be unemployed, and the higher salary they are likely to earn. Education is a key factor in the economic prosperity--or lack of it--of every nation.

An educated population attracts business and industry to a locality for many reasons. Such a locality offers the opportunity to recruit

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workers who will require a minimum of specialized training for their work. A good school system makes it easier for a company to attract prospective staff members from other locations.

The effect of education on personal income makes a community with a high average level of education a good market for a prospective local business because the citizens are able to buy more. Data from a recent U.S. census showed that in communities chosen at random where the median number of school years completed was 6.4 (with 24.9 percent of the population completing four years of high school or more), the median family income was $2,935; in another community where the median number of school years completed was 14.2 (with 86.2 percent of the population completing four years of high school or more), the median family income was over $10,000. (42) Just as better education increases a nation's gross national product, the increased buying power of a community encourages greater production.

The circular result of a community's investment in education thus becomes apparent: The educated citizenry and the attraction to business give the community a high tax base to draw upon, thereby providing greater funds with which to improve education.

> (The additional income produced through education) is a benefit which accrues to the individual receiving the education, at least initially. But some of the private benefit will be captured by the rest of society (the community) through taxation.
>
> If the level of one's consumption of public services is independent of one's education and income, then the additional taxes generally paid by persons with more education and income either decrease tax burdens upon other taxpayers or increase output of public services; in either case the real income of some people increases as a result of the education of others. (43)

There is perhaps no better argument to give property owners without children who sometimes object to paying school taxes to educate "other people's children." For the community as a whole derives great benefit from education, and American education is run at the community level.

Ours is a nation of communities, in which the chances of settling in the community of one's childhood have decreased rapidly in recent years. A study at Princeton University revealed that the "mobility of the United States population is such that the vast majority of financial returns from public elementary and secondary schooling are generally realized outside the school districts which provided the child's education." (44) Besides the obvious effects of loss of revenue when

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the high-income, educated people move away and increased welfare costs when the undereducated move in, the report mentions some education-related expenses borne at levels beyond the individual community--e.g., welfare services at the state level, where the better-educated communities of a state carry the burden of poor education in some communities, and the armed forces at the national level, which set up a program to train the many illiterates discovered during World War II in order to provide an army in a time of crisis. Poor education in segments of the country simply waters the stock of good education provided elsewhere. The report concluded that "population mobility and fiscal interdependence make education decisions in one part of the nation important to other, even distant, parts." (45)

What all persons interested in the good of the schools must do is see to it that the schools meet squarely the challenge that change has presented: to change rapidly enough to keep up with a changing society, to adopt the best new practices fast enough to do the most good for the most students, yet to avoid grasping each new fad just because it is new and to institute only the changes that are educationally sound. More money is often essential for adequate education--but it is not the only answer. A study released in 1966, known as the Coleman Report, shows that "per pupil expenditures on . . . facilities and curricular measures show virtually no relation to achievement if the social environment . . . is held constant." (46)

> It is a fundamental fact that schools are organized to educate children, not save money. Efficiency is always relative to some organizing criteria; hence, efficiency in education must be defined in terms of educational success. (47)

Our goal should be a whole nation of educated communities, where the educated population perpetuates a democratic society to provide a better life for each individual, each family, each neighborhood, each community. The nation is one expanded community that profits as a whole from investment in education.

Responsive Curriculum

Achieving adequate financing of education will not in itself solve education's problems. In the long run, the most important objective is for the student to acquire enough of a cultural background and enough insight into the values inherent in the culture to enable him to make his own value judgments on matters that affect him and the society of which he is a part. Rationality and critical thinking, developed in

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the normal course of a good education, are essential to the ability to define one's goals and values. When the child learns to make rational choices from alternative courses of action and to weigh critically the value of various means and ends, he can form his own set of guiding principles. Education that is meaningful to the lives of each student can provide an outlet for their energies and a direction for their ambitions that are socially acceptable and useful.

California's state superintendent of public instruction, Wilson Riles, analyzes the dropout problem in the case, for example, of poor children:

> Where we have traditionally thought of a dropout in terms of the child's failure to succeed in school, a more realistic appraisal is that dropouts reflect the school's failure to succeed with the child. In effect, the child has not dropped out; he has been pushed out by a school that has ignored his educational needs and by a school program that has no relevance to his aspirations or learning problems. Our schools have been geared to the middle class child, his experiences and his values. Our teachers come from middle class backgrounds. Our curriculum, textbooks, and recognized teaching methods are all aimed at the middle class child. But the instructional program that is good for the middle class child is not necessarily good for the child whose background is one of poverty. (48)

One certain way to stimulate lifelong learning is to keep alive the thrill of discovery, the joy of thinking a problem through to one's own conclusions. Every young child derives natural pleasure from learning and discovery. From the first moments of infancy, the child seems bent on experimenting, trying, knowing. It is the school's responsibility to sustain this phenomenon and encourage it as a lifelong process--and this means carefully selecting the elements that make up the school's curriculum to stimulate each child's desire to learn. The people's mandate to the schools is to provide quality education for all who enter their doors.

The schools must offer programs catering to all interests and talents. We have always been proud of our pluralistic society, of the many kinds of contributions to American greatness that have come from many directions. Students should be able to draw from the wide offerings of the American comprehensive school that include academic and vocational courses. They should have the opportunity to undertake the responsibilities of democratic life through

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participation in school activities. They should derive from their education the ability to think critically and analytically, to judge, weigh, draw inferences, reach conclusions. They should learn to relate to and work with others around them and to become contributing members of society. Our schools are charged with promoting excellence in every field.

Making the curriculum more relevant to students' needs may mean adding new or rare courses, changing standard offerings, providing new materials, hiring specialized personnel, etc. But whatever the means:

> We must free ourselves from our antiquated and erroneous beliefs that school is the only environment in which creativity and learning take place, and that the teacher is the sole agent of such achievements. The whole community is that environment and all its resources must provide those experiences which children are denied by being confined within classroom walls and regimented spaces, or within the home. (49)

Any curriculum should allow children to learn from others--teachers, community members, other students, etc.--but it must also involve them deeply in the actual learning process.

Also, new ways of organizing the school week and the school day, as well as the school year, are being examined as means of opening up the curriculum and making it more flexible. And the school is bursting its boundaries in space as well as time. Philadelphia administrators, faced with the necessity of providing a new facility for 2,400 high school students by 1972, developed a new solution. The Parkway Project was begun in February 1969 with 142 students chosen from among more than 2,000 applicants. The Project has no school plant. It does have a loft, where students have lockers and hold regular meetings with the faculty. Tutorial groups, where students meet teachers and teaching interns for instruction in subjects required by the state for graduation, are held in various locations. However, Parkway students spend most of their time along the Benjamin Franklin Parkway, studying the more than 90 courses offered by public and private institutions. The Franklin Institute offers mathematics, electronics, and chemistry. The Art Museum and the Moore College of Art offer art appreciation. Instruction in zoology and anthropology is available at the zoo. Municipal agencies, a theater, an insurance company, newspapers, and radio and television stations are also learning resources. Freed from walls, learning is reinstated as a part of life.

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When opening up the curriculum, care must be taken that no single school subject is accorded higher status than any other, for each is important in its quest for excellence. Nor should schools allow the development of an aristocracy of college-bound students. Often the schools or the community or both will decide that one kind of ability or one set of talents is more worthy than another. They allot not only the least prestige to programs for children with other abilities but also the fewest resources. A child pursuing a vocational, commercial, or general course may thus find that all the newly available funds are going for new science equipment, while he struggles on with outdated and inadequate facilities and feels a sense of failure at not being up to the really important work. The schools must make radical improvements in existing vocational education programs, bringing them up to the quality and prestige they merit in our economy.

> Equal time, equal status, and equal quality of instruction for vocational education require as a start a review and revision by educators of their own attitudes. To many, vocational training has always been an awkward appendage to the academic curriculum. It never quite fitted and never really was wanted. Until we are prepared to respect it in our own circles, we cannot expect parents or students or the community or industry to consider job training as a necessary function of the school system. (50)

A school system which is aware of its responsibilities for vocational education will take advantage of opportunities to cooperate with local business and industry in order to ensure its students vocational education which both is relevant to the job market of today and will enable them to adapt their qualifications to future changes in requirements.

> . . . there should be only two exits from school--one to additional education, the other to employment. It's time to seal off forever the door that leads nowhere. (51)

The public educational system does not exist for the benefit of taxpayers, or government, or parents, or teachers, much as its quality affects them. It exists for the benefit of all young people of school age--and school age includes more years of a person's life than ever before. A good public education enables students to develop the qualities they will need to live satisfying and productive lives as adults. It provides students the opportunities and materials for learning and develops in them the desire to learn, and it does this for each student in ways best suited to him as an individual. In a

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good school system, learning is not only preparation for the future, but also a source of pleasure--of a sense of accomplishment and excitement and self-respect--in the present. It is not merely a path to a stated goal, but a process of opening up more and more possibilities. A student may pursue education as a means of better fitting himself for a particular role in life, but he may with equal profit pursue it as a means of widening his range of choices in the future. There is little option, in occupation or in style of life, for a person who ends his education before graduating from high school. High school graduation increases his range of choice of vocation, of geographic location, of home, of way of living. Junior college or college graduation increases it still further. A good school system is not a prison, but a path to freedom.

Cooperative Planning

Formulating this ideal curriculum that makes the school a path to freedom for every student is a tremendous responsibility--one that should involve the community in planning the program. The community must understand and approve the program before it is introduced in the schools. It is important that all materials used in the course be available for study by the public and that the schools be open to public inquiry.

One thing is certain regarding the question of public involvement in determining curriculum, or many other school policies. In many communities, particularly racially or socioeconomically homogeneous communities that constitute minorities within very large school systems, parents and other citizens feel that their interests are not represented on the board of education and thus have no chance of being reflected in school policies. School boards, whether or not they include members of minority groups, tend to respond most readily, and give highest priority, to the concerns of groups which are best able to exert pressure on them. In many large cities, the proportion of blacks in the total student population has become or is approaching a majority. The parents of these students remain in the minority in most cases; more significant, they lack the resources to render the institution responsive to them. The groups which have traditionally been best able to exert pressure on public officials have been segments of the white middle class.

The NEA's Task Force on Urban Education describes the city schools whose students are black, Puerto Rican, Mexican-American, or white and poor:

> In comparison to other schools, (they) have a greater number of pupils per teacher, a smaller

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> amount of money to spend per pupil, fewer textbooks and other teaching materials per pupil, a greater proportion of teachers who are not fully certificated, a greater proportion of teachers with fewer years of experience, and many more older school buildings. . . . (52)

Large numbers of Indians are also being educationally crippled in schools that are not responsive to the needs of the students or to the desire of the community to participate in educational decision making. It is the pattern of school district governance that allows the inferior schools attended by Indian children to persist:

> The system often fails to involve the constituency (in this case, the Indian people) in the control of the education of their children. Indian parents are rarely included on the school boards where their children receive their education. (53)

> A Sioux father explained why he felt that Indians were not involved in education affairs. "School officials do not encourage us to participate because the involvement of Indians in school will bring about some drastic changes, and these changes are going to cause the administration and educators to re-evaluate their own system. (54)

Chicanos are also calling for control over their children's education:

> Mexican-American educators see the education of Mexican-American children as involving a coalition of a number of groups, but especially the community and the school. Mexican-American parents must be involved in the educational decisions affecting their children. The monocultural grip of school boards must yield to the new enlightenment; more Mexican-Americans must, out of necessity, become members of school boards in order to effect the necessary changes in Mexican-American education. (55)

Many of these statements are true of rural schools as well, often because the rural poor, notably the white, are not well organized.

Parents in all these groups of the helpless, virtually disenfranchised know that the quality of education is a crucial determinant

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of whether their children will be able to abandon their legacy of poverty or lack of self-respect or powerlessness over their own lives. Through education, the children of these people can become not only competent, but confident. Their parents and the other members of the community, knowing this, are now demanding responsibility for the policies and programs of their schools which can mean an educational program relevant to each child.

Student Participation

Because students are the ones who should truly benefit from the schools, their voices must be heard also when determining the schools program. The relevance of curriculum can be measured only in relation to the individual. Students rebel against being taught things in which they have no interest and being denied the chance to learn things that do interest them.

> Question: . . . If America's schools were to take one giant step forward this year toward a better tomorrow, what should it be?
> Answer: It would be to let every child be the planner, director and assessor of his own education, to allow and encourage him, with the inspiration and guidance of more experienced and expert people, and as much help as he asked for, to decide what he is to learn, when he is to learn it, how he is to learn it, and how well he is learning it. It would be to make our schools, instead of what they are, which is jails for children, into a resource for free and independent learning, which everyone in the community, of whatever age, could use as much or as little as he wanted. (56)

Instead, society seems to build schools not only to mold, but also simply to contain the young:

> Many children and adolescents have no significant relationship with or meaningful assignments in today's adult society. Schools have become like warehouses in which all children and young adults are held outside the real world until they are old enough to go on to further schooling, work, or into the armed forces. Inside, they live in an artificial world. (57)

As one student states it:

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> "It has become quite obvious that our schools don't really belong to us . . . . They tell you there's democracy in the school; they tell you there is equality. But they never tell you who that democracy is for or who that equality is for." (58)

Most of the stated demands of the activist students are elaborations of two major objectives: to obtain freedom from school control of their personal appearance and style of living and to make the school experience--curriculum, teaching methods, and administrative procedure--one which they can agree is relevant to the world beyond the school and to their own growth as human beings. These demands appear to be simply the content chosen by the students to convey their urgent need for a sense of self-determination:

> Students apparently have a developing feeling of "being acted upon" rather than "acted with," and as they become more sophisticated in their uses of power, school officials will have to become equally expert in incorporating such new power into the decision processes of the school organization. (59)

Often students' desire for some degree of self-determination is seen as a threat to adult control:

> It is not violence as such but its political aims that arouse concern. The same men who assail the violence of campus radicals are quite happy to regale listeners with tales of their own (apolitical) boyhood pranks--pranks that would bring a jail sentence if committed today . . . . The difference is that student pranks and riots in the past attacked authority but accepted it. The protests of today confront authority and question it. Thus although no violence at all may occur, those toward whom the protest is directed may feel that violence has been done to them. The disruption of ordinary daily patterns and assumptions is experienced as a kind of psychological violence. (60)

And what would students do if they could run the schools? Some answers come from school systems where high school students have been given responsibility for the curriculum for a week or two. In Montgomery County, Maryland, an Experiment in Free-Form Education was conducted for one week, with faculty, students, and guests from

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the community teaching over 200 short courses. Students selected their activities during the week from among classes at the school, independent study projects, and work in projects in educational or community service agencies off campus. (61)

A somewhat similar experiment was conducted in Hamilton, Massachusetts. In May 1968 two weeks were set aside for seniors to take short courses in subjects they had requested. During the first year the mini-courses were designed and taught by the faculty who were able to teach new subjects, try out new methods such as team teaching, and make more use of audiovisual materials. The following year sophomores and seniors each designed a mini-course program in which not only the school faculty but also students and visitors from the community taught. (62)

At Community High School in Berkeley, California:

> Students participate in all decisions, except where policy is laid down by the parent school. The curriculum, including 33 different courses, was developed by staff and students during the first two weeks of school, and is subject to change at any time . . . . students are seriously concerned with the process of their education and are accepting a good deal of personal responsibility for it. (63)

At the Mini-school of the Lincoln Community School in Berkeley, "Students not only help choose special courses . . . but also participate with parents and teachers in the advisory board and play a major part in evaluating the success of the program." (64)

These experiments--which have enabled students to explore such unusual areas as archaeology, the stock market, auto mechanics, human development, filmmaking, and marine biology--have not been isolated from ordinary experience in the school where they take place. Course content is not the only thing they taught, nor is it only the students who learned. The new courses and methods influence the regular school program. Morale among teachers, students, and administrators is improved. Their common respect and communication is increased. The experiments have revealed that students are reasonable and responsible.

Students' demands for change in the school are part of their campaign for change in the society.

> A . . . factor that prompts rebellion in youth is that the young are--happily for the rest of us--still idealistic, still hopeful that answers can be found to the problems of injustice,

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> discrimination, poverty, and war. As we age, we learn to make compromises and call it wisdom; while young, we insist on solutions and call it courage. (65)

Responsible activism and involvement can help America realize its great potential in the future.

Teacher Accountability

As we have seen, during the past few years new forces have claimed the right to shape the schools. Their memberships and interests are diverse, but their claims share a common basis: the schools affect their lives directly and powerfully. They are the students, the parents, and the teachers. The past decade has seen them awaken to the possibility of holding the schools accountable, recognize the changes they want to make, articulate their wishes, and begin to obtain a hearing for their viewpoint. A few pilot projects have been set up; a few exceptional schools or school districts have changed their structures of governance to include these groups. It remains to test in practice more of the new ideas about allocation of the different responsibilities suitable for the different groups involved, and to establish those that are viable as common practice. It remains for each community to define precisely the best structure of governance, and to yield up the rights of the unfranchised.

The one group that is most often held accountable for the success--or failure--of students is the teachers.

> The society carries the obligation to provide the type of educational experience in which every child can and does succeed. School personnel and others delivering these services must be responsible both to the children and their parents. (66)

And teachers are willing to accept this responsibility if they have appropriate influence over the educational process. The community must establish educational goals and provide adequate financial support, but--

> No curriculum, however well planned, can remain adequate for a considerable period of time unless it is constantly being revised to meet changing circumstances and conditions. Such

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> revision must in great measure be done through and by teachers . . . . Imaginative and creative teachers, supported by their school boards and the citizens of their communities, are initiating new methods of instruction, organizing new bodies of curricular content, and reaching out toward the forefront of cultural development. (67)

During the 1960's nondegree teachers were almost eliminated from the profession. By 1971, 97 percent of the teachers sampled by the NEA Research Division held at least a bachelor's degree. (69)

> To a much greater degree than in industry, the professional in education knows not only how to render the service for which he is paid, but how to improve it. And our knowledge in this respect, moreover, usually exceeds that of our employers--administrators, school board members, and the general public. (70)

> Although I believe that the school does exist to meet society's needs, it is dangerous to assume that the students and teachers are not <u>part</u> of that society. To make students and faculty subject to the objectives defined by authority <u>and</u> to make them live constrained by these definitions over a long period of time must contribute to their sense of alienation. If they have little or no responsibility for setting their own goals, they will come to feel less and less responsible for their own lives. I fear that the very foundations of democracy are threatened by this assumption that the authority rests only with the administration. (71)

Professional Needs

The additional responsibilities teachers want take many forms and affect all levels of the educational institution. Teachers feel that because of their professional training they are competent to participate in making decisions about the functioning of the school--its organization and curriculum as well as the materials and equipment they need for their work. They want this participation because they feel that without it they are not able to do their work as effectively as possible. In addition to the frustration of working under external limitations on the quality of their performance, teachers resent the idea that the contributions they might be able to make to improvement of education are not valued. They feel they are in an unusually good

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position to judge the effects of new ways of structuring the school program, for example, or to evaluate one another's special competence when differentiated assignments are made.

Teachers are not unopposed in their desire to undertake more responsibility.

> Sharing of these decisions may be viewed as a threat to the professional prerogatives of administrators and/or laymen serving on policy-making bodies. It is predictable that these two groups will resist sharply invasions of policy domains by any external group. Thus the extension to teachers of genuine participatory opportunities where they have not been involved will call for rather substantial accomodations on the part of many administrators and school board members. (72)

> For all educational decisions to be directed solely from above lends itself to the dangers of being out of touch with the realities of the problems faced by teachers. It also ignores the necessity for participation by the actors in the educational process. (73)

Teachers have developed a mechanism for improving their salaries and working conditions and for obtaining revisions in the structure that will provide them the decision-making responsibility they demand. Professional negotiation is a process in which representatives of teachers and the school board together create mutually satisfactory written agreements, ratified by the teachers and board, on matters that affect teachers and their work. Professional negotiation is taking place in more districts each year. In more and more states, professional negotiation laws give teachers associations explicit rights and responsibilities in school governance. Teachers are taking the opportunity to make some of the decisions about what happens in schools.

Teachers are beginning to negotiate for improvements in the way schools deal with children. They are asking for freedom to teach the best way they know how.

> Teacher militancy should not be concerned solely with the role of teachers in decisions on salary and working conditions. It should not be directed at all toward securing a greater voice for teachers in the making of traditional curricular decisions. Rather, it should be dedicated to the replacement of traditional curriculum by liberated teaching. (74)

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Teachers must enjoy sufficient academic freedom to be able to teach what they feel should be taught without fear of reprisal. They must have a voice in their professional affairs and in those of their community, without feeling they are overstepping some arbitrary bounds of neutrality or propriety. Teachers must also have sufficient time to do the job for which they are prepared--teaching. In many schools, however, teachers are spending great amounts of class time in clerical tasks, monitoring and disciplinary jobs, and routine instructional work that could be handled by persons who are not teachers:

> Many teachers must continue to operate on a second-rate basis in our nation's classrooms. The child who could have learned to read, given more of his teacher's time, does not; the dropout who might have been saved is not; the school faculty that might have tackled a promising educational innovation with enthusiasm is shrouded in uncertainty about its ability to take on additional professional responsibility. (75)

When a teachers organization and a school board cannot reach agreement on some issues, certain steps are normally taken. The first is usually mediation by a third party who brings a fresh outlook on problems to the negotiation. If the impasse persists, a fact-finder probably will be appointed to take testimony, weigh evidence, and make nonbinding recommendations. If one side or the other rejects these recommendations, and if it proves impossible to continue negotiations in good faith, teachers organizations generally are prepared to withdraw their services to various degrees (total withdrawal being a strike).

Actions by teachers that result in closing the schools are understandably unpopular with parents, who feel that their children are being abandoned. Teachers, however, regard such actions as their duty under certain conditions. Ruth Triggs, president of the Association of Classroom Teachers in 1967-68, put it this way:

> I maintain that a teacher who finds himself in a situation where conditions are such that good education is an impossibility, having exhausted every other means of improving those conditions with no success, should walk out. I further maintain that this teacher shows more dedication to his profession than does the teacher who stays on the job, perpetuating mediocrity . . . . If the teacher's militancy leads to improved conditions of learning, the child's opportunities are enhanced for a lifetime. (76)

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Teachers also use political expertise to seek greater decision-making authority on the state level. In this case, the authority they want is jurisdiction, not over any area of school policy, but over their own profession. Teachers are advocating the establishment in every state of two bodies they consider essential to the autonomy and responsibility of the teaching profession: a professional standards board to establish and administer criteria for teacher certification and a professional practice commission to protect the public against unethical or incompetent behavior on the part of teachers and protect teachers against unfair personnel practices.

In addition, there are other steps that need to be taken to improve the quality of teaching.

> Better recruitment and the possibility of better selection, better substantive education in teacher training institutions, on-the-job training of younger teachers by more experienced ones, in-service and summer institutes, closed-circuit television to continue the education of teachers, improvement in teachers' salaries--all of these must obviously be pursued as objectives. But equally important is the upgrading of the prestige of the teaching profession. This upgrading will depend upon the degree to which we in America are serious about educational reform and the degree to which efforts are made to improve not only the facilities and salaries available to teachers but the support they can count on from the community and from our universities. (77)

Increased professionalization for teachers will have to be a two-way proposition, with teachers assuming the concomitant responsibilities. The more prestige the teaching profession acquires and the higher the salaries the public offers its teachers, the more teachers are going to be held directly responsible for educational outcomes. They will have to maintain their competence, develop new skills, and work actively to enhance the professional character of teaching.

> What is needed is a revitalized system that balances the teacher's right to reasonable security against the rights of students, parents, and other teachers to hold educators responsible for their performance, and to penalize them for failure. (78)

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Public Support

Assignment of responsibility is accompanied by accountability. And when the public grants the teaching profession autonomy in determining means to be employed in achieving agreed-upon educational objectives, the public should be concerned with whether its policies and purposes are being carried out effectively. The professional staff should assume initiative and leadership in working with the public in continuous examination of the educational program in terms of the schools' purposes.

One of the most important factors in the performance of the schools is the attitude of the staff toward their work. In large part, these feelings determine the attitudes of the students toward the schools and education, toward authority and society in general, and toward themselves. A positive attitude among teachers results from the maintenance of a competent and confident staff who know they are able to teach the particular kind of students in their particular school. Members of such a staff are free to respect the individual personalities and learning styles of their students, free even to admit mistakes. The attitude of the school staff is affected by educators' perceptions of the way the community regards them. This is the reason you need to be concerned about teacher morale if you are concerned about the quality of education.

Teaching is, for one thing, an art. A good teacher must have a contagious enthusiasm both for learning in general and for his subject in particular. He must be able to detect ability in the many forms in which it is manifested by students, and he must encourage and develop it. Teaching is also a science. It calls for intensive preparation both in the teacher's special subject matter field and in the methodology of teaching it to his students.

Teachers who are thrust into positions different from those for which they are qualified know they are not doing their best work. Teachers much of whose time is taken up with clerical or housekeeping tasks know they are not doing their best work. Groups of teachers whose pool of professional expertise is not acknowledged by a share in making educational decisions know they are not doing their best work. Such a situation merely sets the seal on the teacher's conviction that the community does not value the task he performs.

The teachers (and the other school personnel) share a goal with the community: to ensure that the educational system is so structured as to be responsive to those it affects. By supporting your teachers, by involving them in the decisions that affect education, by according them the respect and confidence their professional training entitles them to, the community can help teachers assume their rightful share of responsibility in achieving the best possible educational system available.

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Teacher Opinion Poll

Basic School Programs

□ **About two-thirds or more of** public school teachers believe that the schools in which they teach are placing about the right amount of emphasis on teaching students about the world of today and yesterday; on health and physical education; and on the skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic. A little more than half believe that their schools are placing too little emphasis on teaching students how to solve problems and think for themselves and on vocational skills. Only small percentages, 4 percent or less, said that too much emphasis is being placed on these school programs.

These statements are based on responses of a representative nationwide sample of public school teachers to the following question in the 1973 Teacher Opinion Poll:

> Listed below are several basic school programs. In your opinion, does the school in which you teach place too little emphasis, about the right amount of emphasis, or too much emphasis on each of these?

Regarding teaching students about the world of today and yesterday (history, geography, and civics), 81 percent of the teachers queried said that the emphasis was about right. More secondary teachers (84 percent) than elementary (78 percent) and more teachers in school systems enrolling under 25,000 pupils (84 percent) than teachers in systems enrolling 25,000 or more (72 percent) said the emphasis was about right.

A large majority, 72 percent of the teachers queried, believed that in their schools the emphasis placed on teaching health and physical education was about right; about a quarter, that it was too little. Elementary and secondary teachers differed considerably: 30 percent and 19 percent, respectively, said that the emphasis was too little.

Regarding the amount of emphasis placed on teaching students how to get along with others, about 61 percent of all the teachers said that it was about right, but about 39 percent said that it was too little. More elementary teachers (65 percent) than secondary (57 percent) said that the emphasis was about right. The larger the school system, the smaller the proportion of teachers who said that emphasis on teaching students how to get along with others was about right: 55 percent of the teachers in systems enrolling 25,000 or more pupils; 60 percent, in systems enrolling 3,000-24,999 pupils; and 67 percent, in systems enrolling under 3,000 pupils.

Another basic school program listed was teaching students respect for law and authority. About half the teachers said the emphasis placed on this program was about right, and about half said that it was too little. Again elementary and secondary teachers differed considerably: 41 percent of the former and 55 percent of the latter indicated that the emphasis was too little.

On teaching students the skills of speaking and listening, teachers were about evenly divided between just the right amount of emphasis and too little emphasis. However, elementary and secondary teachers differed con-

(Adapted from Today's Education.)

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siderably, 45 percent vs. 56 percent indicating that they thought the emphasis was too little. Less than half (48 percent) of the teachers under age 50 but over half (56 percent) of those age 50 or older said that the emphasis was about right.

More than half the teachers, 56 percent, indicated that their schools were placing too little emphasis on teaching students how to solve problems and think for themselves. More secondary teachers (64 percent) than elementary (48 percent), more rural teachers (62 percent) than urban (56 percent) and suburban (53 percent), and more teachers in school systems enrolling under 3,000 pupils (61 percent) than teachers in systems enrolling more than 3,000 pupils (55 percent) said that their schools were placing too little emphasis on teaching students how to solve problems and think for themselves. Very striking were the differences by age. As the age of the teachers increased, the percentage saying that the emphasis was too little decreased — the range was from 63 percent of those under age 30 to 44 percent of those 50 or older.

Teaching students vocational skills was receiving too little emphasis according to over half (56 percent) of the teachers queried: 65 percent of the elementary and 49 percent of the secondary.

On teaching students the skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic, 68 percent of all the teachers said that the emphasis was just right, and 30 percent that it was too little. Responses of elementary and secondary teachers differed considerably: 12 percent of the elementary but about 47 percent of the secondary teachers said that their schools were placing too little emphasis.

Among the various basic school programs, reading received special attention with the question: "Do the pupils you teach read adequately for their classwork?" The possible answers were "Yes, all read adequately," "No, _____ % do not read adequately," and "Ability to read is not readily discernible in my teaching assignment."

About three-fourths of the teachers said that some of their pupils do not read adequately for their classwork, a median of 25 percent for elementary teachers and a median of 35 percent for secondary teachers.

Basic school program and emphasis on it	Total	Elem.	Sec.
The world of today and yesterday			
About right	80.9%	77.7%	84.0%
Too little	16.4	20.2	12.7
Health and physical education			
About right	71.5	67.9	75.0
Too little	24.0	29.5	18.9
Reading, writing, and arithmetic skills			
About right	68.0	84.1	52.5
Too little	29.7	12.0	46.8
Getting along with others			
About right	60.6	64.6	56.9
Too little	38.6	35.1	42.1
Respect for law and authority			
About right	49.6	56.9	42.6
Too little	48.4	41.4	55.2
Speaking and listening skills			
About right	48.7	54.0	43.6
Too little	50.5	44.7	55.9
Solving problems and thinking for themselves			
About right	43.3	51.5	35.4
Too little	56.4	48.3	64.1
•Vocational skills			
About right	41.5	33.8	48.4
Too little	56.4	65.0	48.6

—NEA Research.

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Student Violence

The data presented here are from the 1974 nationwide opinion poll of a small sample of public school teachers conducted by NEA Research.

Student Violence. About three-fourths of the teachers said that in their schools student violence was not a problem; 3.2 percent, that it was a major problem; and 20.0 percent, a minor problem. Student violence was reported as either a major or minor problem by larger percentages of teachers in urban school systems and in the largest systems than by those in suburban and smaller systems. Also, more violence was reported in suburban systems than in rural ones.

Although only 3.0 percent of the teachers in the sample reported being physically attacked by students, that figure, extrapolated to the total U.S. teacher population of 2.1 million, indicates that more than 63,000 American teachers were attacked by students last year. Similarly, that 11.4 percent of the sample had their personal property maliciously damaged by students means that 239,400 teachers nationwide suffered such damages.

These types of student violence are much more prevalent in urban areas (where 5.4 percent of the teachers reported physical attacks and 15.8 percent, personal property damage) than in suburban (where the percentages were 2.0 and 9.4 percent, respectively) and in rural areas (where the percentages were 1.9 and 9.6 percent, respectively).

—NEA Research.

Class Size

Among the questions in the 1974 nationwide NEA Research survey of the opinions of public school teachers was one concerning size of class.

Teachers were asked to indicate the importance of small classes to the improvement of academic achievement and social and personal development of pupils, and to job satisfaction for the teacher. Eight teachers in 10 (79.7 percent) said they believed small classes were extremely important in improving the academic achievement of pupils, and about 2 in 10 (19.1 percent) considered them moderately important. Nearly 2 teachers in 3 (64.5 percent) considered small classes extremely important for the social and personal development of pupils, and nearly 1 in 3 (31.0 percent) considered them moderately important. Three teachers in 4 (74.1 percent) considered small classes extremely important for job satisfaction for the teacher, and about 2 in 10 (22.9 percent) considered them moderately important.

When the teachers were asked how they felt about the size of the classes they were currently teaching, 49.4 percent said they were about right, and 49.8 percent said they were too large or much too large. Less than 1 percent said their classes were too small or much too small.

—NEA Research.

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Research Topics

By ALEXANDER FRAZIER
Professor of Education, The Ohio State University, Columbus.

What can be done about examination phobia?

Susan had tried twice to take her master's oral exam and failed each time "When I got there, I froze," she explained.

This time she had help through an elaborate program of systematic desensitization carried out over a month's time. Sixteen practice sessions, each composed of two or three half-hour periods separated by 20-minute breaks, were provided. Part of the program was aimed at establishing confidence in dealing with authors about whom questions might be asked. The other part was to "live through" successive steps in the "spatio-temporal" sequence of events to be undergone on examination day.

This time, the investigators are pleased to tell us, Susan finally made it.

See Ralph D. Bruno and James P. McCullough, "Systematic Desensitization of an Oral Examination Phobia," *Journal of Behavior Therapy and Experimental Psychiatry,* Vol. 4 (June 1973), pp. 187-89.

Is "confusion" about sex role always a symptom of pathological behavior?

Sex-role uncertainty is first among the signals of mental illness, for men in particular. Or so Adlerian psychology has long contended. Recent studies offer continued support of the idea.

Disturbed men score lower on measures of masculinity and also view their parents as less sexually stable than do normal subjects. However, the meaning of the "sexually neutral" hairstyles and attire of today's young is yet to be assessed. To what extent does this phenomenon represent conscious rejection of overrigid sex-role stereotyping—and to what extent may it be something else? A need is expressed here for systematic research on the question.

See Henry B. Biller, "Sex-Role Uncertainty and Psychopathology," *Journal of Individual Psychology,* Vol. 29 (May 1973), pp. 24-5.

Can peers be used as "managers" in behavior modification projects?

Pairing off for turn-about tutoring can work well. But can children work together effectively in the application of behavior modification techniques?

The present investigators complicated the task of finding an answer to this question by conducting an experiment with behaviorally disordered children at a summer camp. Nine pairs of managers and subjects were set up to target in on changing behaviors like these: threatening others, leaving the group, not finishing a task, name-calling, expressing feelings of homesickness, and wetting pants or bed. Rewards for substitute behavior included swings on the grapevine, extra rest time, and a chance to choose and lead songs at group meeting.

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Managers were charged with reminding subject of off-target behavior, complimenting every evidence of new behavior, and checking the on-target count made by the counselor-observer to see whether reinforcers had been earned. Managers got their bonuses, too, depending on gains made by the subjects in the investigation.

The investigators report success in eight of the nine cases. While they concede many deficiencies in their study, they urge continued interest in the possibilities of such peer pairings. For one thing, the managers may have made substantial gains, too.

See C. M. Nelson and others, "Behaviorally Disordered Peers as Contingency Managers," *Behavior Therapy*, Vol. 4 (March 1973), pp. 270-76.

Are we ready to deal with environmental abuses?

Measures designed to get at verbal commitment, evidence of action, level of feeling, and actual knowledge in the area of environmental problems were administered to small numbers of three Southern California groups: Sierra Club members, college students, and noncollege adults.

The results were predictable. Sierra Club members were high all the way around. The others were strong on verbal commitment and expressed feelings, low on action and knowledge.

The authors contend that the need for more education is as urgent as it is evident.

See Michael P. Maloney and M. P. Ward, "Ecology: Let's Hear from the People," *American Psychologist*, Vol. 28 (July 1973), pp. 583-86.

Does recitation still have a place in the classroom?

With the current emphasis on individualized study and open discussion, teachers may wonder whether they can justify taking time to question students about a common assignment. But a recent study shows higher retention by students who recited after reading compared to those who simply gave the assignment a second reading.

See Walter Del Giorno and others. "Effects of Recitation on the Acquisition of Prose." *Journal of Educational Research* 67: 293-94; March 1974.

Are today's young of one mind?

No, says a *Scholastic Magazines* report of its 1973-74 high school opinion polls. On only six of the 37 poll topics was there as high as two-thirds agreement on any one possible response. The greatest proportion of students supported the proposal that everybody should have a right to a college education (96 percent).

Other opinions that large numbers of students subscribed to were as follows: belief that individuals can succeed if they try hard enough, 80 percent; no sex preference in boss, 79 percent; opposed to closing school for a month to save fuel, 77 percent; in favor of a ban on smoking in public places, 69 percent; and belief that letters to Congressmen and Congresswomen are not seriously considered, 69 percent.

See *What Today's Young People Are Thinking*. New York: National Institute of Student Opinion, Scholastic Magazines, 1974.

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When do parents intervene in TV watching?

In a sample of suburban children (from homes with an average of three sets), interviewers found the chief cause of parent intervention was settlement of disputes among siblings over which program to watch. Second cause was to keep children to family schedule—mealtimes, bedtime. A poor third, mentioned by a minority of those interviewed, was stepping in to determine which programs children should watch.

See Lawrence H. Streicher and Norman L. Bonney. "Children Talk About Television." *Journal of Communication* 24: 54-61; Summer 1974.

How well do retarded children adjust when placed in regular classes?

The present report concerned an attempt to measure the social behavior of four groups of children at work in their classrooms: segregated educable mentally retarded youngsters (EMR's), integrated EMR's, low-IQ children kept in regular classes, and children of average intelligence.

Twelve behaviors in the hostile-aggressive range had been identified. Observational data revealed that segregated EMR's were significantly more unruly than the integrated ones. Indeed, the latter were indistinguishable from low-IQ and average children in terms of negative verbal give-and-take with peers, restlessness, etc.

In accounting for these findings, the investigators speculate on the role played by "normal" models in the integrated setup and the newcomers' possible fear that they might be resegregated if they got out of hand.

See Dorothy H. Gampel and others. "Comparison of the Classroom Behavior of Special-Class EMR, Integrated EMR, Low-IQ, and Nonretarded Children." *American Journal of Mental Deficiency* 79: 16-21; July 1974.

Whither college enrollment?

The best guess is that enrollment of college-age students (18-24) will reach a peak about 1980 and then will decline until at least the mid 1990's. The next older age group (25-34), if continuing education becomes a reality, will augment enrollment and will have an impact on methods and programs as well.

See Richard Berendzen. "Population Changes and Higher Education." *Educational Record* 55: 115-25; Spring 1974.

What is the status of early schooling in Russia?

Day-care centers (for children six months to three years in age) and kindergartens (four- to six-year-olds) enroll about a third of all Russian children. Cities have higher enrollments than other areas, of course; 80 percent of Moscow's kindergarten-age children are in school.

Teachers of younger children receive first training in specialized secondary schools, some 200 in number. Advanced education is available in 30 higher education institutions. Research and development activities are under way in many regional institutes.

See A. V. Zaporozhets and R. A. Kurbatova. "The Half-Century Road of Preschool Education in the USSR." *Soviet Education* 16: 5-21; May 1974.

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Does training in school survival skills pay off?

According to this study, first grade children whose teachers teach them how to pay attention, volunteer on demand, and buckle down to work at the appropriate time do better in learning to read than children whose teachers just teach reading techniques. However, when teachers use a new programmed approach to teach reading, they get results as good as or better than those who go the survival-skills route. In both instances, the payoff seems to come from better targeted teaching.

See Hyman Hops and J. A. Cobb. "Initial Investigations into Academic Survival-Skill Training, Direct Instruction, and First Grade Achievement." *Journal of Educational Psychology* 66: 548-53; August 1974.

What role does sex typing play in mathematics achievement?

Girls and boys do about the same on fifth grade math tests. But by eleventh grade, there is a big difference in favor of boys.

In a study begun in 1961 and continued at two-year intervals with tests of both achievement and attitude, the Educational Testing Service found a relationship between increasing distaste for math courses among girls in grades 9 and 11 and their lowered scores on achievement tests.

Older girls also differed from boys significantly on value attributed to math in job success, time spent in discussing science with friends and parents, and perceived parental support for post high school education.

See Thomas L. Hilton and Gosta W. Berglund. "Sex Differences in Mathematical Achievement—A Longitudinal Study." *Journal of Educational Research* 67: 231-37; January 1974.

Are teachers sometimes better than they think?

A study of Oregon health teachers in secondary schools reveals that their students rate them higher than they rate themselves. Significant differences in teacher and student evaluation were found in two-thirds of the cases. For three-fourths of the teachers, student evaluations of enthusiasm, preparation, and fairness were higher than teacher self-evaluations.

See Michael S. Brock and Robert J. Houston. "Self-Evaluation of Health Teachers as Compared to Student Evaluation of Same Teachers." *The Journal of School Health* 44: 98-99; February 1974.

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